/For information on the construction and form of houses, yards and farm buildings, see 17: Thurnher, EF6 Serbs file, category 116, pp. 66-70, passim and 86J, 86L-86M./

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Yugoslavia EF1
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/For general information on houses and farm buildings, see 17: Thurnher, EF6 Serbs file, category 116, pp. 79-86./

TIRANA

this height have the appearance of a colorful checkerboard of the gods.

Tirana also has many modern boulevards, recently laid, equalling the cement boulevards of any cosmopolitan city, as well as all the modern conveniences that one finds in other capitals of the world.

In the large city park, music is provided every afternoon by the Royal Court Orchestra and where people promenade to the strains of Beethoven, Puccini, Strauss and Wagner.

In the center of Tirana is located the beautiful Royal Palace, lying in the midst of an immense, well-cared for garden. This garden is one of the show places of Tirana and has a large collection of rare flowers.

Also in the central part of the city in a vast square are to be found a group of modern and most convenient office buildings, wherein the various departments of the government—the Prime Minister's office, the Ministry for Foreign Affairs, the Ministry for Interior Affairs, the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of National Economy, the Ministry of Public Instructions, the Ministry of Public Works, the Parliament and others—are housed.

All foreign legations, except that of Great

10:Hasluck F-5 (1926-1939)1954 EG1 Albania EG1

husbands' homes, but his sons brought their brides to his house and each couple required a separate bedroom. If he were very poor, he might be unable to provide anything better than a lean-to in the farmyard, but the average man built a proper house round the nucleus of sitting-room and kitchen. In the first of the two types to which this house might conform, a number of rooms were grouped together sideways, sometimes on one floor only, usually on two, but rarely on more. In the second type one room was built on top of another, as in a tower, for two, three or even four storeys. This type was always known as a *kullë* (lit. 'tower'), a description also often given to a two- or three-storeyed cluster, although, more usually, any clustered house was called *shtëpi*, the name of the original kitchen. Access to the upper floor in the clustered type was usually by an inner, fixed staircase, and in a tower by an inner ladder that could be pulled up if an enemy penetrated to the ground floor; a trapdoor hung over both staircase and ladder, ready to be closed in an instant, if necessary. The two types of house were found side by side. The clustered one was preferred because its rooms were easier of access, but a family with many enemies or little land fell back on a tower as it was more defensible and took up less space. Whereas a clustered house stood in a farmyard surrounded by a fence of withered thorn or, more frequently, a stone and timber wall of the same construction as that of the house, a tower had generally no farmyard. All its appurtenances—livestock, farm implements, hay or other fodder—were gathered under its own roof, on the ground floor, as being more secure. In a one-storeyed cluster livestock, farm implements, and probably dairy and kitchen as well, were housed in sheds in the yard to save space in the house. In a two-storeyed cluster they were more often accommodated on the ground floor as in a tower, but for convenience rather than security, which was guaranteed by the farmyard wall. Since the sitting-room in such a house was often over the cow-house, it contained an ingenious labour-saving device for use after supper. As soon as the table had been removed, the host swept the crumbs towards a small, unobtrusive hole in the floor in front of the hearth, removed its lid, and with a last flick of his broom dropped the crumbs on the animals below. In a tower the kitchen was over the cow-shed and under the bedrooms, and these in turn were under the men's sitting-room.

In a tower or a two-storeyed cluster there might, for security

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to keep the structure rigid. When a light roof thatched with straw or more boughs had been nailed on and the inner walls had been plastered with mud, the hut was ready for occupation. Quickly built and costing only the price of the nails, it was often larger and more comfortable than the sitting-room in the adjacent house. A folk-tradition says it was long the handsomest dwelling to which any country Albanian aspired. At lower altitudes in Shpat the huts were flimsier as befitted the milder climate. They were usually made of reeds plastered with cow-dung, which was sufficient to keep out the wind.

Three houses of more splendid type, each containing about forty souls, exist at Dibër—Hysni Dema's at Homesh, Murat Kaloshi's at Kandër, and Cen Elezi's at Sllovë. The owners were rich and most hospitable Moslem notables. As some of the older generation were schooled in Constantinople, they complemented their culture and their position by building establishments of Turkish inspiration, with separate blocks of buildings for the men's apartments (Tk. *selamlik*), stables, granaries, storehouses, kitchens and women's apartments (Tk. *haremlik*). These are all enclosed within a high stone wall with defensive turrets at every weak point, especially near the one and only gateway. The women's apartments are really only a series of bedrooms, one for each married man and his wife and children, and the women, for want of a common sitting-room, sit normally in the kitchen like their poorer sisters. Softer mattresses, richer floor-rugs, and fireplaces in the bedrooms indicate the family's wealth, but European beds, tables and chairs are still barred, partly to avoid rousing envy in more backward neighbours. Cen Elezi's sitting-room was a magnificent oblong, warmed by a log-fire in a huge chimney at the far end from the door and softly lit on both its long sides by a row of short windows at the top of the tall walls; enemies outside had as usual to be prevented from shooting through the outer windows, and the men inside must not be able to look through the inner ones at the women's apartments. In this room a hundred travellers supped and slept every night, going their separate ways at dawn; a chef, working in a kitchen of his own and slaughtering a couple of sheep or an ox per night, provided the unvarying menu of soup, boiled meat, bread and rice pilaff. In their retired kitchen the women catered for themselves and the children, when there was no overflow from the chef's.

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342 A man's house, simple or elaborate, was his own, and he could
423 do what he would with it up to a point. But he held it on conditions
685 laid down by the Unwritten Law. This law defined a house as 'any hut or building of one, two, or more storeys that has a hearth and emits smoke', and insisted that poor house and rich house are alike inviolable. A stranger might not enter either without first hailing the master by name. If very discreet, he would call out from some distance; if bolder or on friendly terms with the family, he might lawfully enter the yard first. If no one answered his call, he must wait there or go away. On no account might he push the door open; that would make him a housebreaker. In the old days it would have cost him the usual penalties for theft, a fine of five hundred *grosh* ('piastres') for housebreaking, plus the obligation to send the family two of every article found missing after his visit, and even more recently it caused strife that might end in shooting. It was of no use for him to plead that he knew the master was from home; he knew also that somebody must have been left in the master's place.

The law allowed a man to erect a new house anywhere on his
[351] own ground, subject to the all-important provision that it did no harm to his neighbour's house and ground. In this connexion the term 'house' comprised, not only the dwelling, but also the farm-yard wall or fence, and everything that this enclosed. It followed that a new house must be kept at least the width of its eaves from the neighbour's boundary to make sure that the rain dripping from them should not damage his property. The method most commonly adopted to ensure this was to leave space enough for a man to pass on foot between the new house and the neighbour's boundary. If a man wanted plenty of elbow-room, however, he might build his house as much as two *pashë* ('fathoms') from the boundary. As his visitors were as free as members of his family to use the empty
[491] space, a sizeable road was soon trodden out. Sometimes, too, a man who looked into the future left room for a road that was still non-existent but might one day be wanted by the community, in which contingency his house would otherwise have had to be pulled down and rebuilt elsewhere.

There were also a number of minor rules to be remembered in building. According to the law in Fulqet, if several men had contiguous land, they must build their houses as near as possible to the point at which their land met. Otherwise their several dogs

10: Hasluck F-5 (1926-1939)1954 EGl Albania EGl

greediest man would not venture to disturb the cairn or to steal land for which another had lost his life. 423 628 [425]

Near boundaries of villages and tribes might be won with a boulder and distant boundaries with a slab of rock. In the former event what was a contest in throwing the heavy weight took place; in so poor a country the weight could only be a stone. When the two tribes had quarrelled over a boundary each selected a champion athlete to throw the weight. Whichever threw it farthest won the land in dispute for the tribe. Father Gjeçov does not make it clear where the men stood for the throw. When more distant boundaries were in question, each champion carried a slab of stone or a rock on his back until he dropped under it. The one who held out longest won all the ground he had covered for his tribe.

The relations between a boundary and adjoining structures, such as a fence, wall or house, and natural features like hedges, trees and ditches, were as carefully regulated as the site of the boundary.

A fence or a wall generally enclosed a farmyard and sometimes a field, a vineyard or the like. Fences were made of hurdles or, much oftener, withered Christ's Thorn, depending on what grew in the locality. In the marshes at the mouth of the river Mat withies were interlaced between living willow trees planted like posts in the ditches surrounding the fields. In well-watered areas inland hedges of living Christ's Thorn were common. Walls were usually dry, like Scottish dykes; the more pretentious had their stones bedded in mud. Dry or mud, they were rare round fields, because fences were easier to make and less trouble to maintain. In upland pastures there were neither fences nor walls, presumably because the boundaries were too long. The rules for both fences and walls were pretty much the same. 417 351

When an old farmyard was divided between two brothers or cousins who were on friendly terms, their respective portions were separated only by boundary stones. When they were not on friendly terms what they did depended on the degree of their enmity. If not embittered, they built a wall three spans wide (60 cm.) or a fence, centred exactly over the boundary line and possibly broken by a door that led from one yard to the other. Each built half of the barrier and became the recognized proprietor of what he built. When it was a wall he made a square niche on his own side to mark his ownership. When it was a fence he had no such material way of safeguarding his rights but could always rely on 417 423 596

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417 public memory. If only one of the two wanted a barrier, he had to
423 build it unaided and entirely on his own ground, leaving the
596 boundary stones on his neighbour's side. In this case its position relative to these stones was enough to show whose it was, but he nevertheless constructed the usual niche on his own side. He could not, however, build the wall right against the boundary stones but had to leave its width free between them and its outer base. For the law said that any rain that fell on a man's house or wall must run off on his own ground and not damage his neighbour's property. It needed no legal compulsion, of course, to make him construct the various buildings in his own yard in such a position that their drips did not damage his fence. Incidentally the 60 cm. of free space served at need for a footpath. When two brothers were embittered, each built a partition wall, naturally without a communicating door.

685 If a man wilfully damaged a tree or other property on his neighbour's land he had to answer for his crime by paying damages. If a stranger who did not know he was trespassing on another's property and was not warned off by a shout from the owner did similar damage, he, too, had to appear before the elders.
[622] But if he could prove ignorance of trespass, he had no damage to
[351] pay. To keep animals under control so that they should not stray to another's property, a wall or at least a fence round the yard was an essential concomitant of a house. This too had to be its own thickness inside its owner's boundary to guarantee that rain drips
[1125] did not damage the ground next door. In the Malësi e Madhe the man building the wall could claim any timber that during building operations fell not more than half-way down on his neighbour's side. But whatever fell more than half-way or reached the ground—even the scrap of land he had left himself between the wall and the boundary—became his neighbour's. This discrimination applied to every form of wall.

351 Sometimes when one of two brothers was enclosing his yard he
596 was permitted to utilize his neighbour's wall for one side of his
417 enclosure. There was no risk of this confusing the ownership of the wall, for the neighbour, when building it, had not only put a proprietor's niche on his own side but had also left the boundary stones outside so that they fell within the new yard. A more distant relative could not utilize an existing wall, but had to build one of his own, parallel to the neighbour's and distant by the

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regulation width from the boundary. If this involved him in more expense it also saved him and his descendants from ever quarrelling about the wall. It also gave his dog room enough to run round his house at night, a not unimportant point. But even a brother could not be allowed to erect a building against his neighbour's wall. The risk from the drips of rain from it was too serious.

If one neighbour wished to fence or wall in his field he did no wrong, strictly speaking, by building the barrier along the middle of the grass-grown footpath along the boundary between fields, and so on the very boundary line. But this caused so many quarrels that in Mirditë and the Malësi e Madhe the law bade him leave the width of his barrier free between its outer base and the boundary, just as he must do when building a wall across his courtyard. In its wisdom the law was providing for the future.

Theoretically, a man could not only build his fence or wall along a boundary line, but could also ask his neighbour to make half of it. In practice, however, the neighbour might be too lazy or might say he was too poor or too ill to do his bit. In Kastrat[1] he could be fined 250 grosh and three rams for his unneighbourliness, and this possibility sometimes drove him to action. In the ingenious Malësi e Madhe the first man might in malice run up a fence parallel to the boundary but with an opening sixteen spans (3·20 metres) wide at either end. This ensured that his animals strayed through the opening on to his bad neighbour's field and ate it up. To give the neighbour no chance to make him move his fence he ran it up four spans, half the width of the horse-track, from the boundary. Most men, however, preferred to make the whole fence themselves, constructing it at least half the width of a footpath from the boundary. If two neighbours made half the fence each, but one made his half badly, this man was at fault—whether his sheep strayed into the good fencer's field or the good fencer's into his. The loss always fell on him; in the first case he had to compensate his neighbour, and in the second he had no right to be compensated for the damage done by the animals.

Sometimes a man wished to fence in a field which was bounded by a road. In Krasniqë and some other hilly districts he had to leave a strip of his land as well to allow for the fence slipping down on to the road, an ever likely possibility.

Most hedges of dead thorn were directly over the boundary line,

[1] See Appendix, Document V, § 11, p. 264.

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of theft which were no less universally regarded as shameful. A man who stole from another with whom he had broken bread as host or guest disgraced himself for ever. A woman must not steal for fun or spite. If she did, not only her husband's family, but the whole village felt ashamed and took steps to deal with her.

The accomplice who helped the thief, the host who fed him and the receiver who hid the booty were all considered as no less guilty than the thief himself. 'A thief and his host are the same', and 'Like thief, like receiver' were common sayings. All had to suffer punishment in proportion to their share in the crime and booty. The owner of stolen goods had the right to remove them from the premises of a receiver and to claim compensation, and the receiver had no legal claim for redress as against the thief. On the other hand, if a man bought stolen goods in good faith he had to give them back to the rightful owner, but he was entitled to recover what he had paid for them from the thief.

All possible means of protection against theft were adopted by the mountain peoples. Every man carried a gun by day, and slept with it beside him at night. Dogs were kept in every house and sheepfold. Domestic animals were branded with a mark that could not be destroyed, as when sheep had both their ears notched. Farmyards were surrounded by walls too high to scale and had stout wooden gates heavily bolted at night. Thieves, however, could make holes in the mud and stone walls, and frequently forced an entry that way. The walls of many village shops were lined with wood, so that a thief's chisel, striking it, would make sufficient noise to put the householder on the alert.

In Turkish times many villages sent out armed patrols every night, composed not of professionals like the night watchman of the towns, but of unpaid villagers who served in turn as directed by the village headman. When there was danger of sheep-stealing on a large scale, the threatened villages sometimes bought the protection of some strong man. For example, the villagers of Reç, now in Yugoslavia, hired protection from sheep-stealers of Dibër by paying the Kaloshi family of Dibër a thousand napoleons a year. Nor were the parties deterred from contracting together by the fact that the Kaloshis were Moslems and Albanians, and the villagers of Reç were Orthodox and Macedonian Bulgars.

In the extreme north and south of the mountains, guns could legitimately be used when a thief was caught in the act of breaking

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of losing his protégé, but even so he had to be fairly 'strong'. In Mat such a friend might take the murderer out three times with impunity. Afterwards he was sure to receive a message from the avenger which ran, 'Don't stir out again. Stay indoors. It was for your sake that I didn't fire.'

In the majority of cases the murderer neither ran away nor was shut up, but went about his normal business, taking certain precautions. An Albanian never despised his enemy; the strongest man will say, 'I am stronger than he is, but a rifle doesn't care for bravery, a rifle kills'. He remembers also that an enemy is ever on the watch: 'A wooden stake rots, but an enemy doesn't.' Yet another saying—this from west Mat—'Wood rots, a wrong doesn't'. 'A feud can't be forgotten.' 'A man with an enemy is like a hare sitting on its form, he must watch all the time.'

The first precaution a hunted man had to take at home was never to answer the door himself.

Since the laws of hospitality were rigid and seldom transgressed, a guest seldom killed, or was killed by, his host. Frok Gjeta of Kthellë, however, had lost his father at a guest's hands; three men had called and been unsuspectingly admitted; the old man was hospitably making coffee when they suddenly opened fire and killed him.

About 1910 some men called at a house in Orenjë, in Çermenikë, and were admitted by its widowed mistress as guests. They seized the only adult male in the house, her stripling son and, hanging him head downwards by a rope slung across a rafter, demanded money and avowed that they were avenging the murder of one of their kin by the family. The son said he had no money; the mother screamed that she had a little, but they hanged her son.

Another precaution commonly taken by a 'wanted' man was to live in a house of more than one storey. Such a house never had more than slits for windows in the ground floor and those in the upper room were square holes without glass, across which stone shutters were drawn at night. In Çermenikë the outside staircase that led down to the stables on the ground floor was always fenced in carefully with wood. For greater security the women lived on the ground floor protecting the men who lived above. If a man were rich enough, he built a high wall round the house; this gave him the freedom of his courtyard. In this case all the windows looked inwards on the court; the outer walls were blank save for

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the loopholes. A still richer man, or one with many enemies, had several doors in his courtyard wall and watch-towers at strategic points. (The turrets at each corner and in the middle of the long walls effectually commanded these entrances, and many loopholes in the walls provided space for many defenders to shoot from.) Shevqet Bey Verlaci of Elbasan had several posterns in his garden wall, each commanded by a watch-tower and each providing him in case of need with a possible means of escape.

Incidentally, back entrances in the mountains were useful for guests with enemies. These could enter unseen by other guests, among whom there might be one or more who would inform the enemy of his whereabouts, and so endanger his life. They were also useful if the master had sent a group of his followers to shoot his enemy; if they failed, they could creep in unseen by the guests; in case of failure on such an errand, they did not wish the attempt to be known.

A wanted man who wished to work in his fields might station a child herding goats or a woman minding a cow at a vantage point where an enemy could be detected and the watcher give him warning, so that he might seize his rifle and defend himself. As the enemy's trump card was surprise, he was likely to retreat when detected. Before the wanted man left the house the women and children would look through the windows to make sure no enemy was near. A man with blood on his hands might wish to go to the forest to cut firewood, a place too distant for his women to keep watch. In that case he might send a scout ahead to reconnoitre the road, and himself follow rifle in hand. In Zdrâjshë, Çermenikë, the communal hay-field was so far away that a wanted man made no attempt to go and cut his hay; the others, however, gave him his due share, though he had done nothing to earn it. A man who, in spite of risks, kept moving about might never stir outside, especially at night, without his rifle. He never told where he was going and travelled by an unlikely route and at unwonted times.

In the summer of 1935, to return from Tirana, whither he had been officially summoned, Murat Kaloshi of Dibër sent out an attendant to find a car willing to drive at once to Dibër, and within five minutes of its drawing up at the door of his lodging started. This was at 2 p.m., an hour when Tirana is plunged in sleep on a summer afternoon. He supped at the wayside inn of Lunik, an insignificant village without telegraphic communication, four or

on the wall. When the stairway leads to the second floor on the outside, the ground floor is generally used by women and also has the stables (Nopcsa, 1925: 58). Since the space in the kula is limited, women commonly reside in a one-story women's house, which is not necessarily built like the kula. If the kula gets too small for the family a second one may be built; the new entrance facing the old. They try to have the entrance protected by some other building and not directly in view. 342 712

Interior partitioning walls are never of stone, as this is too heavy and would have to be continued to the ground floor. Partitions are generally of woven brushwood, boards or sometimes large objects are placed so as to form a division. Windows are missing entirely in simpler houses. In the mountains they are small, narrow, glassless and resemble loopholes. They are just large enough to look through, and at night are shut with heavy boards. The fireplace is always along the short wall of the house. It is square in form and made of stone slabs bordered by wooden beams, or of stones that are half buried in the ground. When the floor is of wood an area 20 centimeters deep is cut out for the fireplace and filled with mud for insulation from the fire. This is necessary in two-story houses. The fireplace generally rises only 10 centimeters above the floor. A horizontal beam may extend from the wall over the fireplace. On it is attached a metal chain on which hangs the cauldron. Sometimes a grating of wood is suspended over it for drying meat and to attach pots. The ceiling usually does not project over the fireplace. Sometimes a baldachine-like structure is placed over it; this is a wooden frame, filled with wickerwork and plastered with mud. Between the wall and the fireplace there is often a built-in stone bench. This is sometimes set into a niche. Occasionally there is a smokehole set over the niche (fig. 55) (Nopcsa, 1925: 81). 342 343 354 [417] [352]

Farm Buildings. The yard enclosure is generally a fence of wicker. Occasionally the fields are also enclosed, but less completely. The fence may consist of poles stuck into the ground at regular intervals and bound in two or three places with twine. It may be of wickerwork or poles set close to one another and fastened with a horizontal beam close to the top. Dry masonry is also used (Nopcsa, 1925: 15-16). The yard may be enclosed by stone walls, 7-8 feet high, which are connected with the buildings, together with which they form an enclosure (fig. 43) (Patsch, 1904: 26-27). Nopcsa maintains that the high enclosures and large portals are lacking in Catholic settlements. I was unable to find out just how prevalent high stone walls are in Albania. While one might assume them to be an advantage in defense, one finds that many of the fortress-like buildings are surrounded by extremely weak fences (Nopcsa, 1925: figs. 9, 39, 41). 351 [712]

The kukor is a frame of horizontal boards set on poles 2 meters high. It is not roofed over and is reached by a ladder, generally a notched tree trunk. It is used for the safekeeping of meat, etc. (Houses do not have an attic for storage.) (Nopcsa, 1925: 19-20). The koš for the storage of corn is the same as that used in Serbia, i.e. a circular wickerwork structure. 343 [251] [171]

17:Thurnher E-4 (no date) 1956 EF6 Serbs

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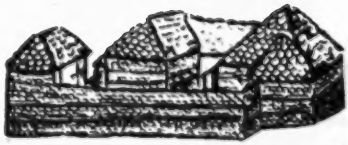

Fig. 43 Farmstead in Southeastern Albania

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Fig. 44 Houses of Bey and Čiflī (Southern Macedonia)

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